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G. 知的財産権の出願・登録状況

なし

Ⅲ. 研究成果の刊行に関する一覧

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IV. 研究成果の刊行物・別刷り

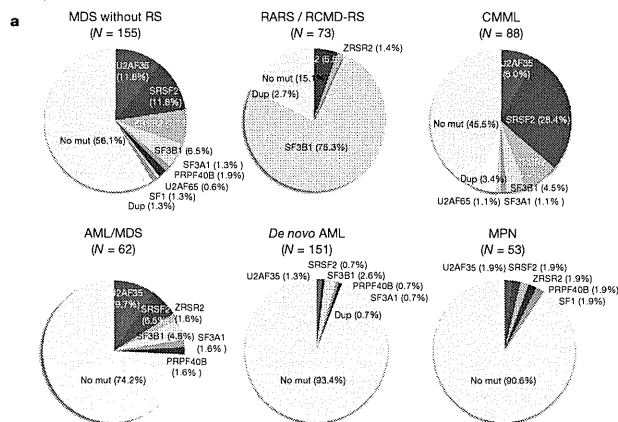


Figure 3 | Frequencies and distribution of spliceosome pathway gene mutations in myeloid neoplasms. a, Frequencies of spliceosome pathway mutations among 582 cases with various myeloid neoplasms. b, Distribution of mutations in eight spliceosome genes, where diagnosis of each sample is shown by indicated colours.

for 4.3% and 12.9% of MDS cases, respectively, where deregulated iron metabolism has been implicated in the development of refractory anaemia²³. With such high mutation frequencies and specificity, the SF3B1 mutations were thought to be almost pathognomonic to these MDS subtypes characterized by increased ring sideroblasts, and strongly implicated in the pathogenesis of MDS in these categories. Less conspicuously but significantly, SRSF2 mutations were more frequent in CMML cases (Fig. 3 and Supplementary Table 4). Thus, although commonly involving the E/A splicing complexes, different mutations may still have different impacts on cell functions, contributing to the determination of discrete disease phenotypes. For example, studies have demonstrated that SRSF2 was also involved in the regulation of DNA stability and that depletion of SRSF2 can lead to genomic instability²⁴. Of interest in this context, regardless of disease subtypes, samples with SRSF2 mutations were shown to have significantly more mutations of other genes compared with U2AF35 mutations ($P = 0.001$, multiple regression analysis) (Supplementary Table 6 and Supplementary Fig. 7).

Notably, with a rare exception of A26V in a single case, the mutations of U2AF35 exclusively involved two highly conserved amino acid positions (S34 or Q157) within the amino- and the carboxyl-terminal zinc finger motifs flanking the U2AF homology motif (UHM) domain. SRSF2 mutations exclusively occurred at P95 within an intervening sequence between the RNA recognition motif (RRM) and arginine/serine-rich (RS) domains (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Figs 8 and 9). Similarly, SF3B1 mutations predominantly involved K700 and, to a lesser extent, K666, H662 and E622, which are also conserved across species (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Fig. 10). The involvement of recurrent amino acid positions in these spliceosome genes strongly indicated a gain-of-function nature of these mutations, which has been a well-documented scenario in other oncogenic mutations²⁵. On the other hand, the 23 mutations in ZRSR2 (Xp22.1) were widely distributed along the entire coding region (Fig. 2). Among these, 14 mutations were nonsense or frameshift changes, or involved splicing donor/acceptor

sites that caused either a premature truncation or a large structural change of the protein, leading to loss-of-function. Combined with their strong male preference for the mutation (14/14 cases), ZRSR2 most likely acts as a tumour suppressor gene with an X-linked recessive mode of genetic action. The remaining nine ZRSR2 mutations were missense changes and found in both males (six cases) and females (three cases), whose somatic origin was only confirmed in two cases. However, neither the dbSNP database (build131 and 132) nor the 1000 Genomes database (May 2011 snp calls) contained these missense nucleotides, suggesting that many, if not all, of these missense changes are likely to represent functional somatic changes, especially those found in males. Interrogation of these hot spots for mutations in U2AF35 and SRSF2 found no mutations among lymphoid neoplasms, including acute lymphoblastic leukaemia ($N = 24$) or non-Hodgkin's lymphoma ($N = 87$) (data not shown).

RNA splicing and spliceosome mutations

Because the splicing pathway mutations in myelodysplasia widely and specifically affect the major components of the splicing complexes E/A in a mutually exclusive manner, the common consequence of these mutations is logically the impaired recognition of 3' SSs that would lead to the production of aberrantly spliced mRNA species. To appreciate this and also to gain an insight into the biological/biochemical impact of these splicing mutations, we expressed the wild-type and the mutant (S34F) U2AF35 in HeLa cells using retrovirus-mediated gene transfer with enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP) marking (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Methods III) and examined their effects on gene expression in these cells using GeneChip Human genome U133 plus 2.0 arrays (Affymetrix), followed by gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) (Supplementary Methods IV)²⁶. Intriguingly, the GSEA disclosed a significant enrichment of the genes on the non-sense-mediated mRNA decay (NMD) pathway among the significantly upregulated genes in mutant U2AF35-transduced HeLa cells (Fig. 4b, Supplementary Fig. 11a and Supplementary Table 7), which was

confirmed by quantitative polymerase chain reactions (qPCR) (Fig. 4c and Supplementary Methods 5V). A similar result was also observed for the gene expression profile of an MDS-derived cell line (TF-1) transduced with the S34F mutant (Supplementary Figs 11b, c). The NMD activation by the mutant U2AF35 was suppressed significantly by the co-expression of the wild-type protein (Supplementary Fig. 11d), indicating that the effect of the mutant protein was likely to be mediated by inhibition of the functions of the wild-type protein. Given that the NMD pathway, known as mRNA surveillance, provides a post-transcriptional mechanism for recognizing and eliminating abnormal transcripts that prematurely terminate translation²⁷, the result of the GSEA analyses indicated that the mutant U2AF35 induced abnormal RNA splicing in HeLa and TF-1 cells, leading to the generation of unspliced RNA species having a premature stop codon and induction of the NMD activity.

To confirm this, we next performed whole transcriptome analysis in these cells using the GeneChip Human exon 1.0 ST Array (Affymetrix), in which we differentially tracked the behaviour of two discrete sets of probes showing different level of evidence of being exons, that is, 'Core' (authentic exons) and 'non-Core' (more likely introns) sets (Supplementary Methods IV and Supplementary Fig. 12). As shown in Fig. 4d, the Core and non-Core set probes were differentially enriched among probes showing significant difference in expression between wild-type and mutant-transduced cells (false discovery rate (FDR) = 0.01). The Core set probes were significantly enriched in those probes significantly downregulated in mutant U2AF35-transduced cells compared with wild-type U2AF35-transduced cells, whereas the non-Core set probes were enriched in those probes significantly upregulated in mutant U2AF35-transduced cells (Fig. 4e). The significant differential enrichment was also demonstrated, even when all probe sets were included (Fig. 4f). Moreover, the significantly differentially expressed Core set probes tended to be up- and downregulated in wild-type and mutant U2AF35-transduced cells compared with mock-transduced cells, respectively, and vice versa for the differentially expressed non-Core set probes (Fig. 4e). Combined, these exon array results indicated that the wild-type U2AF35 correctly promoted authentic RNA splicing, whereas the mutant U2AF35 inhibited this processes, rendering non-Core and therefore, more likely intronic sequences to remain unspliced.

The abnormal splicing in mutant U2AF35-transduced cells was more directly demonstrated by sequencing mRNAs extracted from HeLa cells, in which expression of the wild-type and mutant (S34F) U2AF35 were induced by doxycycline. First, after adjusting by the total number of mapped reads, the wild-type U2AF35-transduced cells showed an increased read counts in the exon fraction, but reduced counts in other fractions, compared with mutant U2AF35-transduced cells (Fig. 4g). The reads from the mutant-transduced cells were mapped to broader genomic regions compared with those from the wild-type U2AF35-transduced cells, which were largely explained by non-exon reads (Fig. 4h). Finally, the number of those reads that encompassed the authentic exon/intron junctions was significantly increased in mutant U2AF35-transduced cells compared with wild-type U2AF35-transduced cells (Fig. 4i and Supplementary Methods VI). These results clearly demonstrated that failure of splicing ubiquitously occurred in mutant U2AF35-transduced cells. A typical example of abnormal splicing in mutant-transduced cells and the list of significantly unspliced exons are shown in Supplementary Fig. 13 and Supplementary Table 8, respectively.

Biological consequence of U2AF35 mutations

Finally, we examined the biological effects of compromised functions of the E/A splicing complexes. First, TF-1 and HeLa cells were transduced with lentivirus constructs expressing either the S34F U2AF35 mutant or wild-type U2AF35 under a tetracycline-inducible promoter (Fig. 5a and Supplementary Figs 14a and 15a), and cell proliferation was examined after the induction of their expression. Unexpectedly, after the induction of gene expression with

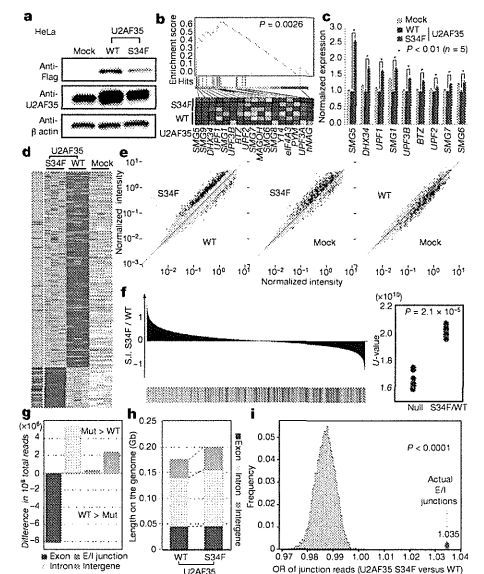


Figure 4 | Altered RNA splicing caused by a U2AF35 mutant. a, Western blot analyses showing expression of transduced wild-type or mutant (S34F) U2AF35 in HeLa cells used for the analyses of expression and exon microarrays. b, The GSEA demonstrating a significant enrichment of the set of 17 NMD pathway genes among significantly differentially expressed genes between wild-type and mutant U2AF35-transduced HeLa cells. The significance of the gene set was empirically determined by 1,000 gene-set permutations. c, The confirmation of the microarray analysis for the expression of nine genes that contributed to the core enrichment in the NMD gene set. Means \pm s.e. are provided for the indicated NMD genes. P values were determined by the Mann-Whitney U test. d, Significantly upregulated and downregulated probe sets (FDR = 0.01) in mutant U2AF35-transduced cells compared with wild-type U2AF35-transduced cells in triplicate exon array experiments are shown in a heat map. The origin of each probe set is depicted in the left lane, where red and green bars indicate the Core and non-Core sets, respectively. e, Pair-wise scatter plots of the normalized intensities of entire probe sets (grey) across different experiments. The Core and non-Core set probes that were significantly differentially expressed between the wild-type and mutant U2AF35-transduced cells are plotted in red and green, respectively. f, Distribution of the Core (red) and non-Core (green) probe sets within the entire probe sets ordered by splicing index (S.I.; Supplementary Methods IV), calculated between wild-type and mutant U2AF35-transduced cells. In the right panel, the differential enrichment of both probe sets was confirmed by Mann-Whitney U test. g, Difference in read counts for the indicated fractions per 10^8 total reads in RNA sequencing between wild-type and mutant U2AF35-expressing HeLa cells analysis. Increased/decreased read counts in mutant U2AF35-expressing cells are plotted upward/downward, respectively. h, Comparison of the genome coverage by the indicated fractions in wild-type- and mutant-U2AF35-expressing cells. The genome coverage was calculated for each fraction within the 10^8 reads randomly selected from the total reads and averaged for ten independent selections. i, The odds ratio of the junction reads within the total mapped reads was calculated between the two experiments (red circle), which was evaluated against the 10,000 simulated values under the null hypothesis (histogram in blue).

doxycycline, the mutant U2AF35-transduced cells, but not the wild-type U2AF35-transduced cells, showed reduced cell proliferation (Fig. 5b and Supplementary Fig. 15b) with a marked increase in the G2/M fraction (G2/M arrest) together with enhanced apoptosis as

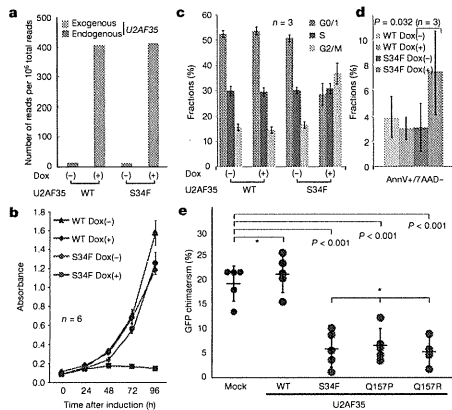


Figure 5 | Functional analysis of mutant U2AF35. a, Expression of endogenous and exogenous U2AF35 transcripts in HeLa cells before and after induction determined by RNA sequencing. U2AF35 transcripts were differentially enumerated for endogenous and exogenous species, which were discriminated by the Flag sequence. b, Cell proliferation assays of U2AF35-transduced HeLa cells, where cell numbers were measured using cell-counting apparatus and are plotted as mean absorbance \pm s.d. c, The flow cytometry analysis of propidium iodide (PI)-stained HeLa cells transduced with the different U2AF35 constructs. Mean fractions \pm s.d. in G0/G1, S and G2/M populations after the induction of U2AF35 expression are plotted. d, Fractions of the annexin V-positive (AnnV+) populations among the 7-amino-actinomycin D (7AAD)-negative population before and after the induction of U2AF35 expression are plotted as mean \pm s.d. for indicated samples. The significance of difference was determined by paired *t*-test. e, Competitive reconstitution assays for CD34-negative KSL cells transduced with indicated U2AF35 mutants. Chimaerism in the peripheral blood 6 weeks after transplantation are plotted as mean %EGFP-positive Ly5.1 cells \pm s.d., where outliers were excluded from the analysis. The significance of differences was evaluated by the Grubbs test with Bonferroni's correction for multiple testing. *not significant.

indicated by the increased sub-G1 fraction and annexin V-positive cells (Fig. 5c, d, Supplementary Fig. 14b and Supplementary Methods VI). To confirm the growth-suppressive effect of U2AF35 mutants *in vitro*, a highly purified haematopoietic stem cell population (CD34⁺c-Kit⁺Sca1⁺Lin⁻, CD34⁺KSL) prepared from C57BL/6 (B6)-Ly5.1 mouse bone marrow²⁸ was retrovirally transduced with either the mutant (S34F, Q157P and Q157R) or wild-type U2AF35, or the mock constructs, each harbouring the EGFP marker gene (Supplementary Fig. 16). The ability of these transduced cells to reconstitute the haematopoietic system was tested in a competitive reconstitution assay. The transduced cells were mixed with whole bone marrow cells from B6-Ly5.1/5.2 F1 mice, transplanted into lethally irradiated B6-Ly5.2 recipients, and peripheral blood chimaerism derived from EGFP-positive cells was assessed 6 weeks after transplantation by flow cytometry. We confirmed that each recipient mouse received comparable numbers of EGFP-positive cells among the different retrovirus groups by estimating the percentage of EGFP-positive cells and overall proliferation in transduced cells by *ex vivo* tracking. Also no significant difference was observed in their homing capacity to bone marrow as assessed by transwell migration assays (Supplementary Fig. 17). As shown in Fig. 5e, the wild-type U2AF35-transduced cells showed a slightly higher reconstitution capacity than the mock-transduced cells. On the other hand, the recipients of the cells transduced with the various U2AF35 mutants showed significantly lower EGFP-positive cell chimaerism than those of either the mock- or the wild-type U2AF35-transduced

cells, indicating a compromised reconstitution capacity of the haematopoietic stem/progenitor cells expressing the U2AF35 mutants. In summary, these mutants lead to loss-of-function of U2AF35 most probably by acting in a dominant-negative fashion to the wild-type protein.

Discussion

Our whole-exome sequencing study unexpectedly unmasked a complexity of novel pathway mutations found in approximately 45% to 85% of myelodysplasia patients depending on the disease subtypes, which affected multiple but distinctive components of the splicing machinery and, as such, demonstrated the unquestionable power of massively parallel sequencing technologies in cancer research.

The RNA splicing system comprises essential cellular machinery, through which eukaryotes can achieve successful transcription and guarantee the functional diversity of their protein species using alternative splicing in the face of a limited number of genes²⁹. Accordingly, the meticulous regulation of this machinery should be indispensable for the maintenance of cellular homeostasis³⁰, deregulation of which causes severe developmental abnormalities^{31,32}. The current discovery of frequent mutations of the splicing pathway in myelodysplasia, therefore, represents another remarkable example that illustrates how cancer develops by targeting critical cellular functions. It also provides an intriguing insight into the mechanism of 'cancer specific' alternative splicing, which have long been implicated in the development of cancer, including MDS and other haematopoietic neoplasms^{33,34}.

In myelodysplasia, the major targets of spliceosome mutations seemed to be largely confined to the components of the E/A splicing complex, among others to SF3B1, SRSF2, U2AF35 and ZRSR2, and to a lesser extent, to SF3A1, SFI, U2AF65 and PRPF40B. The broad coverage of the wide spectrum of spliceosome components in our exome sequencing was likely to preclude frequent involvement of other components on this pathway (Supplementary Fig. 18). The surprising frequency and specificity of these mutations in this complex, together with the mutually exclusive manner they occurred, unequivocally indicate that the compromised function of the E/A complex is a hallmark of this unique category of myeloid neoplasms, playing a central role in the pathogenesis of myelodysplasia. The close relationship between the mutation types and unique disease subtypes also support their pivotal roles in MDS.

Given the critical functions of the E/A splicing complex on the precise 3' splice site recognition, the logical consequence of these relevant mutations would be the impaired splicing involving diverse RNA species. In fact, when expressed in HeLa cells, the mutant U2AF35 induced global abnormalities of RNA splicing, leading to increased production of transcripts having unspliced intronic sequences. On the other hand, the functional link between the abnormal splicing of RNA species and the phenotype of myelodysplasia is still unclear. Mutant U2AF35 seemed to suppress cell growth/proliferation and induce apoptosis rather than confer a growth advantage or promote clonal selection. ZRSR2 knockdown in HeLa cells has been reported to also result in reduced viability, arguing for the common consequence of these pathway mutations³⁵. These observations suggested that the oncogenic actions of these splicing pathway mutations are distinct from what is expected for classical oncogenes, such as mutated kinases and signal transducers, but could be more related to cell differentiation. Of note in this regard, the commonest clinical presentation of MDS is severe cytopenia in multiple cell lineages due to ineffective haematopoiesis with increased apoptosis rather than unlimited cell proliferation¹. In this regard, lessons may be learned from the recent findings on the pathogenesis of the 5q- syndrome, where haploinsufficiency of RPS14 leads to increased apoptosis of erythroid progenitors, but not myeloproliferation^{36,37}.

A lot of issues remain to be answered, however, to establish the functional link between these splicing pathway mutations and the

pathogenesis of MDS, where the broad spectrum of RNA species affected by impaired splicing hampers identification of responsible gene targets. Moreover, the mutated components of the splicing machinery have distinct function of their own other than direct regulation of RNA splicing, involved in elongation and DNA stability, which may be important to determine specific disease phenotypes. Clearly, more studies are required to answer these questions through understanding of the molecular basis of their oncogenic actions.

METHODS SUMMARY

Whole-exome sequencing of paired tumour/normal DNA samples from the 29 patients was performed after informed consent was obtained. SNP array-based copy number analysis was performed as previously described^{31,38}. Mutation analysis of the splicing pathway genes in a set of 582 myeloid neoplasms were performed by first screening mutations in PCR-amplified pooled targets from 12 individuals, followed by validation/identification of the candidate mutations within the corresponding 12 individuals by Sanger sequencing. Flag-tagged cDNAs of the wild-type and mutant U2AF35s were generated by *in vitro* mutagenesis, constructed into a murine stem cell virus-based retroviral vector as well as a tetracycline-inducible lentivirus-based expression vector, and used for gene transfer to CD34⁺KSL cells and cultured cell lines, with EGFP marking, respectively. Total RNA was extracted from wild-type or mutant U2AF35-transduced HeLa and TF-1 cells, and analysed on microarrays. RNA sequencing was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions (Illumina). Cell proliferation assays (MTT assays) on HeLa and TF-1 cells stably transduced with lentivirus U2AF35 constructs were performed in the presence or absence of doxycycline. For competitive reconstitution assays, CD34⁺KSL cells collected from C57BL/6 (B6)-Ly5.1 mice were retrovirally transduced with various U2AF35 constructs with EGFP marking, and transplanted with competitor cells (B6-Ly5.1/5.2 F1 mouse origin) into lethally irradiated B6-Ly5.2 mice 48 h after gene transduction. Frequency of EGFP-positive cells was assessed in peripheral blood by flow cytometry 6 weeks after the transplantation (Supplementary Methods VII). The primer sets used for validation of gene mutations and qPCR of NMD gene expression are listed in Supplementary Tables 9–11. A complete description of the materials and methods is provided in the Supplementary Information. This study was approved by the ethics boards of the University of Tokyo, Munich Leukaemia Laboratory, University Hospital Mannheim, University of Tsukuba, Tokyo Metropolitan Ohtsuka Hospital and Chang Gung Memorial Hospital. Animal experiments were performed with approval of the Animal Experiment Committee of the University of Tokyo.

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Supplementary Information is linked to the online version of the paper at www.nature.com/nature.

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Author Contributions Y.S., Y.S., A.S.-O., Y.N., M.N., G.C., R.K. and S. Miyano were committed to bioinformatics analyses of resequencing data. M.Sa., A.S.-O. and Y.Sa. performed microarray experiments and their analyses. R.Y., T.Y., M.O., M.Sa., A.K., M.Sh. and H.N. were involved in the functional analyses of U2AF35 mutants. N.O., M.S.-Y., K.I., H.M., W.-K.H., F.N., D.N., T.H., C.H., S. Miyawaki, S.C., H.P.K. and L.-Y.S. collected specimens and were also involved in planning the project. K.Y., Y.N., Y.Su., A.S.-O. and S.S. processed and analysed genetic materials, library preparation and sequencing. K.Y., M.Sa., Y.Sa., A.S.-O., Y.Sa. and S.O. generated figures and tables. S.O. led the entire project and wrote the manuscript. All authors participated in the discussion and interpretation of the data and the results.

Author Information Sequencing data have been deposited in the DDBJ repository under accession number DR0000433. Microarray data have been deposited in the GEO database under accession numbers GSE31174 (for SNP arrays), GSE31171 (for exon arrays) and GSE31172 (for expression arrays). Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints. The authors declare no competing financial interests. Readers are welcome to comment on the online version of this article at www.nature.com/nature. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to S.O. (sogawa-ky@umin.ac.jp).

Brief report

Heterozygous *ITGA2B* R995W mutation inducing constitutive activation of the α IIb β 3 receptor affects proplatelet formation and causes congenital macrothrombocytopenia

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Congenital macrothrombocytopenia is a genetically heterogeneous group of rare disorders. α IIb β 3 has not been implicated in these conditions. We identified a novel, conserved heterozygous *ITGA2B* R995W mutation in 4 unrelated families. The surface expression of platelet α IIb β 3 was decreased to 50% to 70% of control. There was spontaneous PAC-1 and fibrinogen binding to resting platelets without CD62p

expression. The activation state of α IIb β 3 in 293T cells was higher for α IIb-W995 than for β 3-H723 but was weaker than for β 3-N562. FAK was spontaneously phosphorylated in α IIb-W995/ β 3-transfected 293T cells. These results indicate that α IIb-W995/ β 3 has a constitutive, activated conformation but does not induce platelet activation. α IIb-W995/ β 3-transfected CHO cells developed membrane ruffling and abnormal cytoplas-

mic protrusions. The increased size and decreased number of proplatelet tips in α IIb-W995/ β 3-transduced mouse fetal liver-derived megakaryocytes indicate defective proplatelet formation. We propose that activating mutations in *ITGA2B* and *ITGB3* represent the etiology of a subset of congenital macrothrombocytopenias. (*Blood*. 2011;117(20):5479-5484)

Introduction

Congenital macrothrombocytopenia is a genetically heterogeneous group of rare disorders.¹⁻⁴ The most frequent forms include *MYH9* disorders and Bernard-Soulier syndrome. In approximately half of cases of congenital macrothrombocytopenia, the pathogenesis remains unknown; thus, a definite diagnosis is unavailable. Glanzmann thrombasthenia is the most common congenital platelet disorder caused by qualitative or quantitative abnormality of the integrin α IIb β 3, in which the platelet counts and morphology are normal.⁵ However, *ITGA2B* R995Q mutation has been reported in a patient with Glanzmann thrombasthenia-like phenotype and macrothrombocytopenia.^{6,7} Recently, heterozygous *ITGB3* mutations were found in patients with congenital macrothrombocytopenia.⁸⁻¹⁰ We report here a novel, conserved heterozygous *ITGA2B* R995W mutation in 4 unrelated families.

of platelet α IIb β 3. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients or their parents in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Institutional review boards of Nagoya Medical Center and each of the participating institutions/hospitals approved this study.

Genetic analysis

The entire coding sequence of exons and exon-intron boundaries of *ITGA2B* (supplemental Table 1, available on the *Blood* Web site; see the Supplemental Materials link at the top of the online article) and *ITGB3* was amplified by polymerase chain reaction and sequenced. The disease-associated *ITGA2B* haplotype was determined by cloning and sequencing the polymerase chain reaction products.

Platelet glycoprotein analysis

Flow cytometry and immunoblotting were performed as described previously.^{11,12} The activation state of α IIb β 3 was evaluated by the binding of the ligand-mimetic antibody PAC-1 (BD Biosciences) and FITC-labeled fibrinogen.¹³

Cloning, mutagenesis, and retroviral transduction

ITGA2B and *ITGB3* sequences were amplified from the patient's platelet cDNA and cloned into pcDNA3.1 (Invitrogen). T562N¹³ and D723H⁸ were introduced into *ITGB3* cDNA using site-directed mutagenesis. *ITGA2B* and *ITGB3* expression plasmids were cotransfected into 293T and CHO cells.

Methods

Patients

Twenty-seven patients with congenital macrothrombocytopenia, in whom *MYH9* disorders, heterozygous and homozygous Bernard-Soulier syndrome, type 2B von Willebrand disease, and *TUBB1* mutations were excluded, underwent mutational analysis of *ITGA2B* and *ITGB3*. Fifty-five consecutive patients were prospectively analyzed for the surface expression

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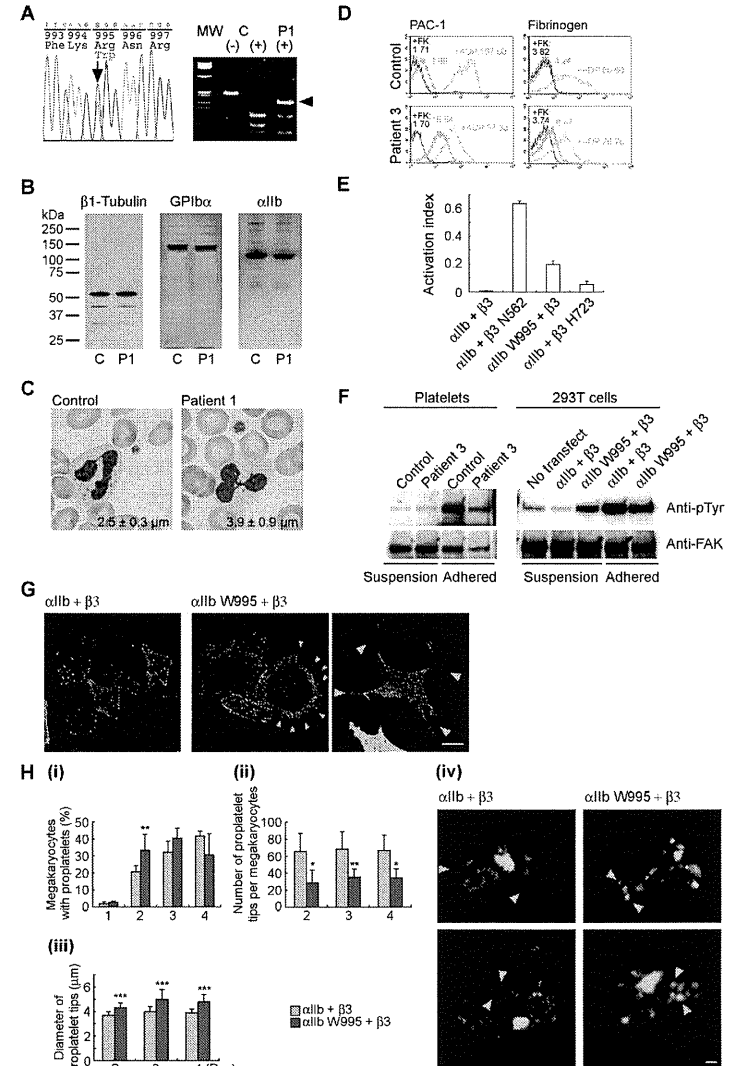


Figure 1. Platelet morphology and biochemical, genetic, and functional analyses of *ITGA2B* R995W mutation. (A; left) DNA sequence analysis of *ITGA2B*. The entire coding regions of the patients' *ITGA2B* were amplified from genomic DNA by the polymerase chain reaction, and amplified DNA fragments were subjected to direct cycle sequence analysis. A C to T transition at nucleotide 3077, changing Arg995 to Trp (R995W), was detected. Nucleotide numbering for *ITGA2B* cDNA is according to Poncz et al.¹⁸ The arrow shows the position of the substitution. (Right) Allele-specific restriction analysis. DNA fragments amplified using primers 2Bq305/303 (supplemental Table 1) were digested with BspACI (SibEnzyme), electrophoresed on 2% agarose gels, and stained with ethidium bromide. The 3077C > T substitution abolishes a recognition site for BspACI, generating a new 231-bp band (arrowhead). The mutation was not found in 108 healthy controls or in the SNP database (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/SNP). MW indicates HaeIII digest of Φ X 174 DNA; C, control; and P1, patient 1. (B) Immunoblot analysis of platelets. Triton X-100-soluble platelet lysates were separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis on 4% to 12% gradient acrylamide slab gels (Invitrogen) and electroblotted onto polyvinylidene difluoride membranes. The blots were incubated with anti- β 1 tubulin antibody NB2301,¹⁹ anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody PL524 (Takara), and anti- α IIb antibody S222 (Beckman-Coulter) and reacted with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody. The bound antibodies were visualized using an enhanced chemiluminescent substrate. C indicates control; and P1, patient 1.

α IIb-W995/ β 3-transfected CHO cells exhibited membrane ruffling and abnormal cytoplasmic protrusions with the bulbous tips on fibrinogen-coated surfaces (Figure 1G), indicating that the salt bridge-disrupting mutations exert the same influence on the integrin activation and cytoskeletal events. Abnormal clustering of α IIb β 3, which was reported in *ITGB3* L718P mutation,¹⁰ was not observed in these cells or in platelets spread on immobilized fibrinogen (supplemental Figure 1). It is worth noting that macrothrombocytopenia-associated *ITGB3* mutations in the ectodomain and the cytoplasmic membrane-proximal region have different properties in terms of outside-in signaling and bleeding tendency.^{9,10}

Finally, to determine the functional consequences of R995W mutation on platelet production, we coexpressed α IIb and β 3 in mouse fetal liver cells by retroviral transfer and differentiated them into megakaryocytes (Figure 1H). There was an early increase and decrease in the percentage of proplatelet formation-positive megakaryocytes in α IIb-W995/ β 3-transfected megakaryocytes. The number of proplatelet tips was decreased, and the size of the tips increased. These results are consistent with thrombocytopenia and the increased platelet size in patients, indicating that the stimulation of mutant α IIb β 3 leads to abnormal proplatelet formation. However, not all *ITGA2B*- and *ITGB3*-activating mutations are associated with macrothrombocytopenia. Patients with homozygous *ITGB3* C549R or C560R mutation inducing constitutively active α IIb β 3 have a normal platelet count and size,^{23,24} suggesting different molecular mechanisms for the induction of abnormal proplatelet formation.

α IIb β 3 has not been implicated in an abnormal platelet count or morphology.⁵ Our data support and extend the recent reports that heterozygous, activating mutations in *ITGA2B* and *ITGB3*, in the juxtamembrane region, cause macrothrombocytopenia.⁶⁻¹⁰ We thus propose that such mutations represent the etiology of a subset of congenital macrothrombocytopenias. It is also probable that homozygosity causes Glanzmann thrombasthenia, as demonstrated in the original report of macrothrombocytopenia-associated *ITGA2B* R995Q mutation.^{6,7} The creation of a knock-in mouse model and/or use of an in vivo megakaryocyte infusion model²⁵ should clarify

the mechanism underlying the production and processing of giant platelets.

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Authorship

Contribution: S.K. designed and performed research, analyzed data, and wrote the paper; H.K. and Y. Tomiyama performed platelet experiments and interpreted the results; M. Onodera constructed retrovirus vectors; M. Otsu, N.T., K.E., and M. Onodera designed the retroviral transfection experiments; Y.M., Y. Takamatsu, J.S., and K.M. contributed patient samples; and H.S. supervised the research.

Conflict-of-interest disclosure: The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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Rapid diagnosis of FHL3 by flow cytometric detection of intraplatelet Munc13-4 protein

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Familial hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis (FHL) is a potentially lethal genetic disorder of immune dysregulation that requires prompt and accurate diagnosis to initiate life-saving immunosuppressive therapy and to prepare for hematopoietic stem cell transplantation. In the present study, 85 patients with hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis were screened for

FHL3 by Western blotting using platelets and by natural killer cell lysosomal exocytosis assay. Six of these patients were diagnosed with FHL3. In the acute disease phase requiring platelet transfusion, it was difficult to diagnose FHL3 by Western blot analysis or by lysosomal exocytosis assay. In contrast, the newly established flow cytometric analysis of

intraplatelet Munc13-4 protein expression revealed bimodal populations of normal and Munc13-4-deficient platelets. These findings indicate that flow cytometric detection of intraplatelet Munc13-4 protein is a sensitive and reliable method to rapidly screen for FHL3 with a very small amount of whole blood, even in the acute phase of the disease. (Blood. 2011;118(5):1225-1230)

Introduction

The granule-dependent cytotoxic pathway is a major immune effector mechanism used by cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs) and natural killer (NK) cells.¹ The pathway involves a series of steps, including cell activation, polarization of the lysosomal granules to the immunologic synapse, exocytosis of lytic proteins such as perforin and granzymes, and induction of apoptosis in the target cells.² In addition to its central role in the defense against intracellular infections and in tumor immunity, this pathway also plays an important role in the regulation of immune homeostasis. Defects in the granule-dependent cytotoxic pathway result in a catastrophic hyperinflammatory condition known as hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis (HLH).^{1,3}

HLH is a life-threatening syndrome of immune dysregulation resulting from the uncontrolled activation and proliferation of CTLs, which leads to macrophage activation and the excessive release of inflammatory cytokines.^{4,5} Clinical diagnosis of HLH is made on the basis of cardinal signs and symptoms including prolonged fever and hepatosplenomegaly, and by characteristic laboratory findings such as pancytopenia, hyperferritinemia, hypofibrinogenemia, increased levels of soluble IL-2 receptor, and low or absent NK cell activity.^{5,6} HLH can be classified into primary (genetic) or secondary (acquired) forms according to the underlying etiology, although this distinction is difficult to make in clinical practice.^{4,5}

Familial hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis (FHL) encompasses major forms of primary HLH for which mutations in the genes encoding perforin (*PRF1*); FHL2,⁷ Munc13-4

(*UNC13D*); FHL3,⁸ syntaxin-11 (*STX11*); FHL4,⁹ and syntaxin-binding protein 2 (also known as Munc18-2) (*STXB2*); FHL5)^{10,11} have been identified to date. Perforin is a cytolytic effector that forms a pore-like structure in the target cell membrane. Munc13-4, syntaxin-11, and Munc18-2 are involved in intracellular trafficking or the fusion of cytolytic granules to the plasma membrane and the subsequent delivery of their contents into target cells.^{1,12} Consequently, defective cytotoxic activity of CTLs and NK cells is one of the hallmark findings of FHL.^{7,8,13-16} although NK cell activity is also decreased in some cases of secondary HLH.^{15,17-20}

Prompt and accurate diagnosis of FHL is mandatory to initiate life-saving immunosuppressive therapy and to prepare for hematopoietic stem cell transplantation. Detection of perforin expression in NK cells with flow cytometry is a reliable method to screen for FHL2.²¹ Another test analyzes the expression of CD107a on the surface of NK cells, which marks the release of cytolytic granules.²² Reduced expression of CD107a implies impaired degranulation of NK cells and predicts a likelihood of FHL3.²³ However, this analysis is not available in some patients with extremely reduced NK cell numbers, such as during the acute phase of HLH.¹⁹ In addition, NK-cell degranulation is also impaired in FHL4²⁴ and FHL5,^{10,11} making it impossible to differentiate these disorders.

We reported previously that Munc13-4 protein is expressed in platelets and regulates the secretion of dense core granules.²⁵ Herein we report that Munc13-4 is expressed far more abundantly in platelets than in PBMCs. We also describe the development of a

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new method to screen for FHL3 rapidly by detecting intraplatelet Munc13-4 expression through flow cytometry.

Methods

Patients

Between January 2008 and March 2010, whole blood samples from 85 patients were screened for FHL3. The patients had been clinically diagnosed with HLH by their referring physicians and were suspected of possible FHL. Characteristics of the enrolled patients are summarized in supplemental Table 1 (available on the *Blood* Web site; see the Supplemental Materials link at the top of the online article). As a control, blood obtained from healthy adults at the time of patient sampling was shipped for screening along with the patient samples. Before the laboratory studies were performed, informed consent was obtained from the patients and their parents, in accordance with the institutional review board of Kyoto University Hospital and the Declaration of Helsinki.

Preparation of PBMCs and platelet samples

Whole blood samples treated with EDTA were centrifuged gently at 100g for 10 minutes, and platelets were collected from the supernatant plasma layer. Alternatively, platelets were prepared from small aliquots of blood samples by lysing red blood cells with ammonium chloride. PBMCs were obtained by Ficoll-Hypaque density gradient centrifugation from the remaining sample. CD4⁺, CD8⁺, CD14⁺, CD19⁺, and CD45⁺ cells were separated from PBMCs using an AutoMACS Pro (Miltenyi Biotec) and magnetic bead-conjugated mAbs according to the manufacturer's instructions. Flow cytometric analysis revealed that each cell population contained > 95% CD4⁺, CD8⁺, CD14⁺, CD19⁺, and CD45⁺ cells (data not shown).

Mutation analysis

Genomic DNA was isolated from the PBMCs of patients with defective Munc13-4 expression using standard procedures. Primers were designed for the amplification and direct DNA sequencing of the *UNC13D*-coding exons, including the adjacent intronic sequences for the identification of splice-site variants. Primer sequences are available upon request. Products were sequenced directly with an ABI3130 genetic analyzer (Applied Biosystems).

Antibodies

Rabbit polyclonal antibodies raised against the N-terminal region (residues 1-262)²⁵ and full-length human Munc13-4 protein were used as primary antibodies for Western blot and flow cytometric analysis, respectively. Rabbit polyclonal anti-integrin α IIb (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) and mouse polyclonal anti- β -actin (Sigma-Aldrich) antibodies were used as primary antibodies for Western blotting. The mAbs used in the flow cytometric analysis were FITC-conjugated anti-CD3 (SK7; BD Pharmingen), phycoerythrin (PE)-conjugated anti-CD41a (HIP8; BD Pharmingen), allophycocyanin-conjugated anti-CD56 (N901; Beckman Coulter), and PE-conjugated anti-CD107a (H4A3; eBioscience).

Western blot analysis

Cell extracts were fractionated by SDS-PAGE, and the fractionated proteins were electrotransferred onto polyvinylidene fluoride membranes. The membranes were blocked overnight in blocking buffer (5% skim milk) and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature with the primary antibodies, followed by HRP-conjugated anti-rabbit or anti-mouse IgG polyclonal antibodies (Santa Cruz Biotechnology). Specific bands were visualized by the standard enhanced chemiluminescence method.

Flow cytometric analysis of Munc13-4 protein

After surface staining with anti-CD41a mAbs, platelets were fixed and permeabilized by Cytofix/Cytoperm (BD Biosciences) and washed 3 times

with Perm/Wash buffer (BD Biosciences). After nonspecific reactions were blocked with Chrome-Pure human IgG (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories), rabbit polyclonal antibody against the full-length human Munc13-4 protein was added, followed by FITC-conjugated donkey anti-rabbit IgG (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories). Platelets were gated on the basis of their appearance on forward- and side-scatter plots in log/log scale and by CD41a expression. The gated platelets were analyzed for Munc13-4 expression by flow cytometry (FACSCalibur; BD Biosciences).

Lysosomal degranulation assays

To quantify lysosome exocytosis by NK cells, 2×10^5 PBMCs were mixed with 2×10^5 human erythroleukemia cell line K562 cells and incubated for 2 hours in complete medium (RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 2mM L-glutamine and 10% FCS) at 37°C in 5% CO₂. Cells were resuspended in PBS supplemented with 2% FCS and 2mM EDTA; stained with anti-CD3-FITC, anti-CD56-allophycocyanin, and anti-CD107a-PE mAbs; and analyzed by flow cytometry.

Platelet exocytosis of the lysosomal granules was analyzed as described previously²⁶ but with a minor modification. Briefly, platelets were suspended in PBS containing 2mM EDTA and PE-conjugated anti-CD107a mAb, stimulated with 5 U/mL of thrombin (Wako Pure Chemical Industries) for 10 minutes at 25°C, and immediately analyzed by flow cytometry. The degranulation index of platelets was calculated as: (mean fluorescence value of stimulated sample - mean fluorescence value of nonstimulated sample)/mean fluorescence value of nonstimulated sample.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed with 1-way ANOVA followed by the Tukey post hoc test to compare multiple groups, with a $P < .05$ level considered to be significant.

Results

Diagnosis of FHL3 by Western blot analysis using platelets

Before screening for FHL3, the Munc13-4 expression level was compared between platelets and PBMCs. Munc13-4 expression in platelets was approximately 10 times higher than that in PBMCs (Figure 1A). CD8⁺ cells expressed a similar level of Munc13-4 protein as other PBMC cell types (Figure 1B). Similar amounts of platelet- and PBMC-derived proteins could be obtained from a sample (data not shown). Therefore, platelets were used to perform Western blotting to screen for Munc13-4 deficiency. Of the 85 patients screened, 6 patients were diagnosed with FHL3 (Figure 1C). Munc13-4 protein was barely detected in the platelets of each FHL3 patient regardless of the gene mutation (Table 1). For each sample, no more than 1 mL of whole blood was required to perform the analysis.

Difficulty in diagnosing FHL3 in the acute phase of the disease

Patients in the acute phase of the disease who require screening for FHL often receive platelet transfusions because of thrombocytopenia.^{4,6} To study the effect of transfused platelets on screening results, FHL3 screening was attempted in a patient receiving platelet transfusions. As expected, Western blotting using platelets could not detect Munc13-4 deficiency because of the normal expression of the protein in the transfused platelets (Figure 2A left column). Surprisingly, Western blotting using PBMCs also could not clearly identify Munc13-4 deficiency because a substantial number of platelets were present in the PBMCs obtained by the standard method (Figure 2A right column). By positively selecting CD45⁺ cells and removing platelets, it was found that a considerable amount of the Munc13-4 protein detected in PBMC samples

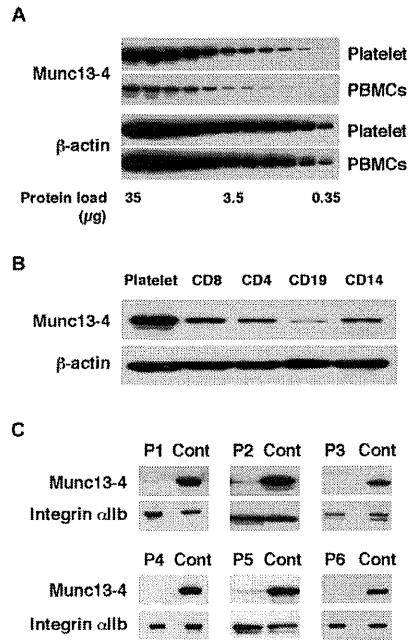


Figure 1. Diagnosing FHL3 by Western blotting using platelet protein. The amount of Munc13-4 protein expression was compared between platelets and PBMCs (A) and among platelets, CD8⁺, CD4⁺, CD19⁺, and CD14⁺ cells (B) by Western blotting. A representative result of 5 independent experiments is shown. (C) Six FHL3 patients were diagnosed by Western blotting for Munc13-4 protein using platelets.

obtained by standard density gradient centrifugation was actually derived from the contaminating platelets (Figure 2B).

We performed a NK-cell degranulation assay for every referred sample and found the assay to be defective for every FHL3 patient identified (data not shown). All of the other patients showed a

Table 1. UNC13D gene mutations of FHL3 patients

Patient	Age at onset	Gender	Mutation	Genotype	Predicted effect
P1	14 days	Female	c.1596 + 1G → C	Homo	Splice error
P2	2 months	Male	c.322-1G → A	Hetero	Splice error
			c.990G → C	Hetero	p.Q330H
			c.3193C → T	Hetero	p.R1065X
P3	12 months	Female	c.754-1G → C	Hetero	Splice error
			c.2485delC	Hetero	p.L829fs
P4	4 months	Female	c.754-1G → C	Hetero	Splice error
			c.1799C → T	Hetero	p.T600M
			c.1803C → A	Hetero	p.Y601X
P5	2 months	Female	c.754-1G → C	Hetero	Splice error
			c.1596 + 1G → C	Hetero	Splice error
P6	5 months	Male	ND	ND	ND

Mutations were checked for single nucleotide polymorphisms using the dbSNP Build 132 database from the National Center for Biotechnology Information. X indicates stop; fs, frame shift; and ND, not determined.

normal release of lysosomal granules by NK cells; however, the analysis could not be performed in some patients because of the extremely low NK-cell number during the acute phase of the disease (data not shown).

We also examined the lysosomal granule release of platelets in 31 patients to determine whether this assay could be used as a screening method for FHL3. Lysosomal exocytosis of FHL3 platelets was partially impaired at steady state, but profound impairment was observed during the acute phase of the disease (Figure 3A-C). This profound impairment was also observed in platelets obtained from some secondary HLH patients during the acute phase (Figure 3B-C). These results indicate that it is difficult to diagnose FHL3 during the acute phase of HLH either by Western blot or by lysosomal degranulation assay.

Rapid diagnosis of FHL3 by flow cytometric detection of intraplatelet Munc13-4

To overcome the difficulty in diagnosing FHL3 during the acute phase of HLH, antibodies were raised against the full-length human Munc13-4 protein (supplemental Figure 1) and a new method was developed to detect Munc13-4 protein in platelets by flow cytometry. A total of 35 patients, including 4 with FHL3 (P3-P6), were

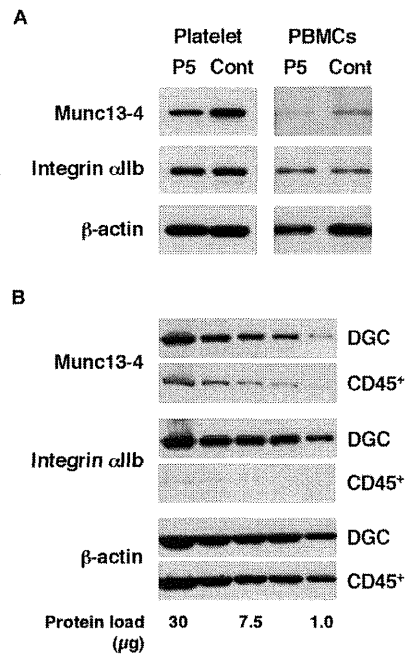


Figure 2. Effect of platelet transfusion on Western blot analysis. (A) Western blotting analysis for Munc13-4 expression using platelets and PBMCs from an FHL3 patient (P5) receiving platelet transfusions during the acute phase of the disease. (B) The expression of Munc13-4 was compared between PBMCs obtained by density gradient centrifugation (DGC) and CD45⁺ cells obtained by magnetic sorting from healthy controls. A representative result of 3 independent experiments is shown.

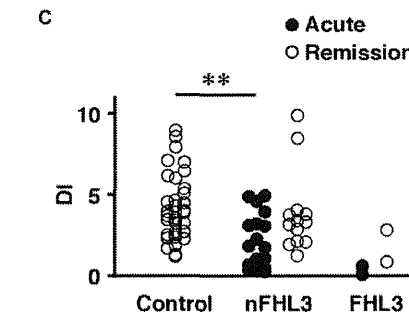
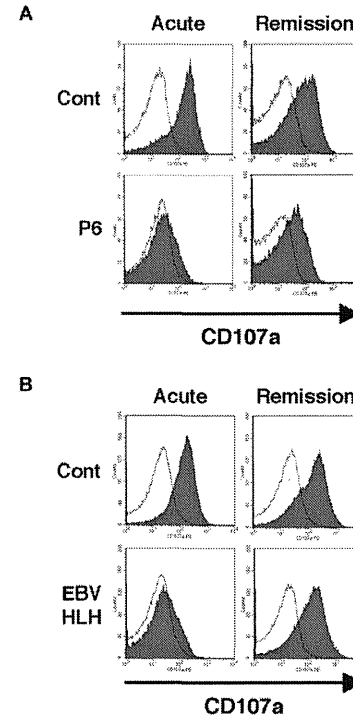


Figure 3. Analysis of lysosomal exocytosis using platelets from HLH patients. Platelets from an FHL3 patient (P6; A) and from a secondary (EBV-associated) HLH patient (B) along with healthy controls were left untreated (open histogram) or were stimulated with thrombin (closed histograms), and the surface expression of CD107a was analyzed by flow cytometry. Analysis was performed during the acute phase of the disease (left column) and after clinical remission (right column). (C) Degranulation index (DI) of platelets from HLH patients during the acute phase (●) and after clinical remission (○). HLH patients with normal NK-cell degranulation and Munc13-4 protein expression by Western blot analysis were defined as non-FHL3 (nFHL3). ***P* < .01 by the Tukey post hoc test.

analyzed using this method. Munc13-4 deficiency was readily detected in all of the FHL3 patients, with a sample volume of < 100 μL of whole blood (Figure 4A-C). Munc13-4 protein was expressed at normal level in the platelets of parents and siblings of FHL3 patients carrying heterozygous *UNC13D* mutations (data not shown). In the FHL3 patient receiving platelet transfusions, flow cytometric analysis revealed bimodal populations of normal and Munc13-4-deficient platelets (P5 in Figure 4A). As shown in Figure 4B, the method was able to clearly identify Munc13-4-deficient platelets in whole blood samples stored at room temperature for 1 week.

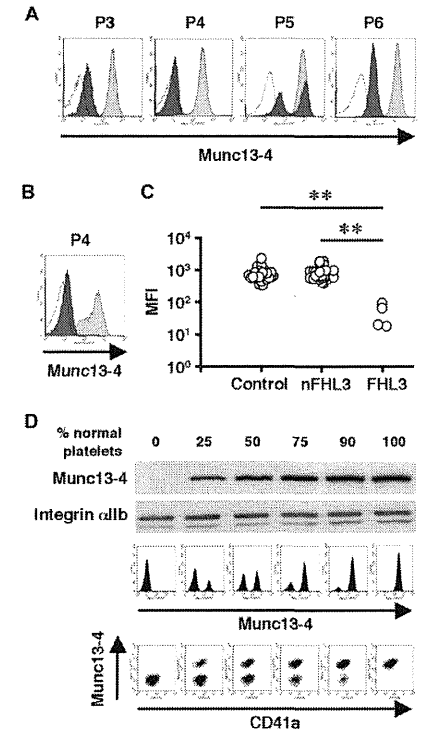


Figure 4. Flow cytometric detection of intraplatelet Munc13-4 protein. Flow cytometric analysis of intraplatelet Munc13-4 expression in 4 FHL3 patients and healthy controls using whole blood samples shipped overnight (A) and in an FHL3 patient (P4) and a healthy control using samples stored at room temperature for a week (B). Dark closed histograms represent platelets from FHL3 patients, whereas light closed histograms represent platelets from healthy controls. Open histograms represent staining with isotype controls. (C) Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of intraplatelet Munc13-4 staining for HLH patients and healthy controls. All of the healthy controls (*n* = 35) were adults. Non-FHL3 (nFHL3) patients (*n* = 31), as defined in Figure 3, varied in age (2 days-39 years) and included 2 patients with FHL2. Age-related variations in the MFI of Munc13-4 staining were not observed. ***P* < .01 by the Tukey post hoc test. (D) The sensitivities of Western blot and flow cytometric analyses for detecting Munc13-4-deficient platelets were compared.

To determine the sensitivity of the new method, Munc13-4-deficient platelets were mixed with normal platelets at varying ratios. Western blot analysis could not detect Munc13-4-deficient platelets easily, even when the proportion of normal platelets was as low as 25% (Figure 4D). In contrast, flow cytometric analysis easily identified 10% Munc13-4-deficient platelets among 90% normal platelets (Figure 4D), which proved the high sensitivity of the method in diagnosing FHL3.

Discussion

FHL is a rare but life-threatening inherited immune disorder for which mutations in 4 genes have been identified as causative factors. *PRF1* encodes the cytolytic effector protein perforin that forms a pore-like structure in the target cell membrane.^{1,12} A mutation in *PRF1* results in FHL2,⁷ which accounts for 20%-50% of FHL cases.^{4,5} *UNC13D* encodes the protein Munc13-4, which is crucial for the fusion of cytolytic granules to the plasma membrane and the subsequent release of perforin and granzymes.^{1,12} Mutations in *UNC13D* result in FHL3,⁸ which accounts for 20%-30% of FHL cases.^{4,12} FHL4 is caused by mutations in *STX11*, which encodes syntaxin-11.⁹ Mutations in *STXBP2*, which encodes Munc18-2, were recently reported to cause FHL5.^{10,11} Syntaxin-11 and Munc18-2 also mediate the fusion of cytolytic granules to the plasma membrane.^{1,5,12} The ability to screen for FHL2-5 rapidly would facilitate the initiation of life-saving immunosuppressive therapy and the preparation of FHL patients for hematopoietic stem cell transplantation.

In the present study, we found that the Munc13-4 protein is expressed abundantly in platelets (Figure 1A-B). The detection of Munc13-4 protein in platelets by Western blotting (Figure 1C) or flow cytometry (Figure 4A-B) was a reliable screening method to identify FHL3 patients. Munc13-4-deficient platelets were identified easily among normal transfused platelets by flow cytometry, which indicated that this method could be applied to patients who are receiving platelet transfusions during the acute phase of the disease (P5 in Figure 4A). Detection of intraplatelet Munc13-4 was enabled by the use of highly specific antibodies against the full-length human Munc13-4 (supplemental Figure 1).

There is a possibility that FHL3 patients with residual Munc13-4 protein expression could be overlooked by the screening methods described in this study. Most FHL3 patients have mutations that result in the absence or significant reduction of Munc13-4 protein expression,^{16,23} as was the case with the patients screened in this study (Figure 1C), which suggests that the mutated Munc13-4 protein is unstable. The NK-cell degranulation assay, which was performed for every referred sample with a sufficient number of NK cells, revealed defective degranulation only in the identified FHL3 patients (date not shown). These results indicate that the majority of mutations in *UNC13D* are likely amenable to rapid detection by the new methods described in this study. Comparative studies on the *UNC13D* genotype, Munc13-4 protein expression, and the lysosomal exocytosis assay must be performed to confirm the reliability of these methods.

It was also investigated whether the analysis of lysosomal release by platelets could be used as an alternative method to screen for FHL3. Profound impairment of lysosomal exocytosis by platelets during the acute phase of the disease and restoration of this impairment after clinical remission was observed in FHL3 and in some secondary HLH patients (Figure 3). It is not clear whether

this transient impairment of platelet degranulation is involved in HLH pathogenesis or if it merely reflects in vivo platelet activation by diffuse endothelial damage during the acute phase of the disease that renders them unresponsive to ex vivo stimulation. The release of lysosomal granules by Munc13-4-deficient platelets was impaired only minimally at steady state (Figure 3A and 3C), which is in contrast to a recent study showing the involvement of the Munc13-4 protein in the release of lysosomal granules in mouse platelets.²⁷ Although the precise reason for this discrepancy is unclear, platelet degranulation is likely to be regulated differentially between species; for example, Munc13-4-deficient mice have bruising and bleeding tendencies²⁷ that are not commonly associated with human FHL3. Further studies are warranted to elucidate the exocytosis pathways of platelets and their role in the pathophysiology of HLH.

With the development of tools for rapid screening, the diagnostic approach for FHL has changed over the years. Impaired NK cytotoxicity was the first reported signature clinical finding of FHL patients.^{13,14} Defective CTL activity was subsequently reported as another hallmark of FHL.^{7,8,16,28} However, NK-cell activity is also decreased in some cases of secondary HLH,^{15,17-20} and the CTL cytotoxicity assay is not readily accessible to most clinicians. The NK-cell lysosomal exocytosis assay is a comprehensive method to identify patients with a degranulation defect.^{10,11,22-24} However, this analysis is not available in some patients with extremely reduced NK-cell numbers, which are often observed during the acute phase of HLH.¹⁹ Although CTLs can be an alternative tool to perform the lysosomal exocytosis assay,^{24,28,29} it remains impossible to differentiate FHL3-FHL5.^{10,11,23,24} Impairment in these assays warrants the genetic confirmation of FHL, but sequencing all of the candidate genes is not a suitable approach for rapid diagnosis. Flow cytometric detection of perforin expression in NK cells is a reliable and rapid way of identifying patients with FHL2,²¹ and the new method described in this study for the detection of Munc13-4 expression in platelets would add to the rapid diagnosis of FHL3.

Platelets could also be used for the screening of FHL4 and FHL5 because they share some granule-transport mechanisms with other types of hematopoietic cells, including CTLs and NK cells.^{2,30,31} Indeed, in the present study, both syntaxin-11 and Munc18-2 were expressed abundantly in platelets (data not shown). We are currently using platelet proteins to screen for FHL4-FHL5 by Western blot analysis, although no cases have been found so far because of the extreme rarity of these disorders.

In summary, platelets abundantly express Munc13-4 protein and are a useful tool to screen for FHL3. By detecting intraplatelet Munc13-4 expression by flow cytometry, it is now possible to rapidly screen for FHL3 with a very small sample of whole blood, even in the acute disease phase requiring platelet transfusion. Because platelets share some of their granule transport systems with other types of hematopoietic cells, they could also be used to screen for other types of immune disorders, including FHL4 and FHL5.

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Authorship

Contribution: T.Y., R.N., T.N., H.H., and H.T. designed the research; Y.M., K.I., and M.S. performed the Western blot and flow cytometric analyses; K.O. and O.O. performed the genetic analyses; R.S. and H.H. prepared the anti-Munc13-4 antibodies and started the FHL3 screening; Y.M., T.Y., R.S., K.I., H.S., J.A.,

N.T., T.K., R.N., E.I., T.N., H.H., and T.H. analyzed and discussed the results; and Y.M., T.Y., and T.H. wrote the manuscript.

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